



Prediction of CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands on the Tibetan Plateau during the 21st century

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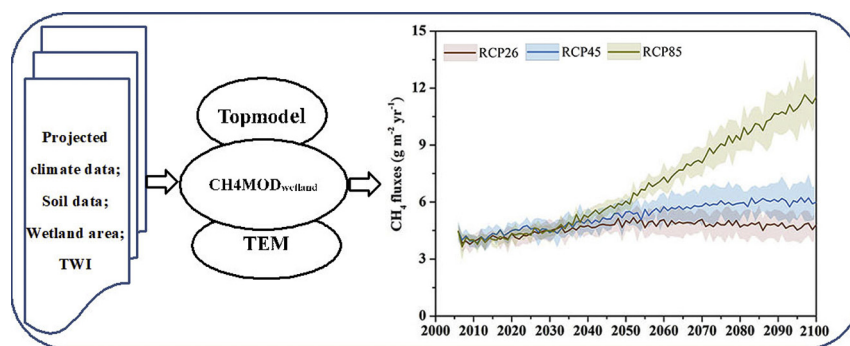
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HIGHLIGHTS

- An integrated model framework based on CH4MOD_{wetland}, TOPMODEL and TEM was established.
- CH₄ fluxes will increase by 7.6%, 27.0% and 124.5% under CMIP5 scenarios by 2100.
- The dominant drivers for stimulating CH₄ fluxes are the temperature, precipitation and NPP.
- CH₄ fluxes showed decreasing trend from south to north, east to west.
- The potential natural wetlands on TP will emit 0.42–1.01 Tg CH₄ under CMIP5 scenarios by 2100.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

The alpine wetlands on the Tibetan Plateau (TP) are ecosystems vulnerable to global climate change. It has been recognized that future climate change may have a significant impact on methane (CH₄) emissions from the plateau, while less attention has been paid to predicting temporal and spatial variations in CH₄ emissions from TP natural wetlands. In this study, we used an integrated model framework based on the CH4MOD_{wetland}, TOPMODEL and TEM models to predict CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands on the TP under IPCC AR5 scenarios from 2006 to 2100. The model estimates suggest that the mean area-weighted CH₄ fluxes will increase from $4.45 \pm 0.42 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2006 to 4.79 ± 0.72 , 5.99 ± 0.85 and $11.53 \pm 1.33 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under 3 Representative Concentration Pathway scenarios (RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios), respectively, by 2100. The dominant drivers stimulating CH₄ emissions are air temperature, precipitation and net primary productivity (NPP). Spatially, CH₄ fluxes and emissions showed a decreasing trend from south to north and from east to west. In response to climate change, a total of 0.42 ± 0.06 , 0.54 ± 0.09 and $1.01 \pm 0.12 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ of CH₄ emissions will be emitted from the TP's potential natural wetlands by the end of this century under the RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios, respectively.

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1. Introduction

Methane (CH₄) is the most major long-lived anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) after carbon dioxide (CO₂) (Myhre et al., 2013). CH₄

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has a global warming potential (GWP) of 28 over 100 years (Myhre et al., 2013) and contributed 17% of the direct anthropogenic radiative forcing in 2016 (Butler and Montzka, 2013). When the indirect global warming effects of CH₄ on aerosols and other chemical compounds (e.g., O₃) are incorporated, CH₄ has a 10–40% larger current GWP (IPCC, 2013; Shindell et al., 2009).

Wetlands are the world's largest CH₄ source, with CH₄ emissions of 115 (Fung et al., 1991) to 270 Tg yr⁻¹ (Melton et al., 2013), contributing approximately 20–25% of the total annual CH₄ emissions (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2007). CH₄ emissions from wetlands are the balance between CH₄ production (methanogenesis) and CH₄ oxidation (methanotrophy) (Bridgman et al., 2013). The main pathways of CH₄ emissions are through plants, ebullition, diffusion as well as hydrodynamic transport (Poindexter et al., 2016; Anthony and MacIntyre, 2016). These processes can be influenced by climatic factors such as temperature and precipitation. Temperature has a direct impact on methanogenesis and methanotrophy by affecting the activities and structures of microbial communities (Serrano-Silva et al., 2014; Whalen, 2005; Lew and Glińska-Lewczuk, 2018). Water table depth is a key factor that determines the anaerobic proportion of wetlands, where methanogenesis occurs (Bhullar et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2002; Moore and Roulet, 1993). Climate can directly influence the hydrological processes of a wetland by changing the input of precipitation (Hodson et al., 2011; Wei and Wang, 2017) and indirectly affect wetlands by changing evapotranspiration, near-surface permafrost and glacier and snow water equivalents (Yao et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2015). In addition, changes in temperature, precipitation, and other key environmental factors, coupled with increased CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere, will influence plant species and productivity (Gao et al., 2016; Song et al., 2018) and further regulate methanogenic substrates and CH₄ transportation (Joabsson and Christensen, 2001; Joabsson et al., 1999; Li et al., 2016a; Walker et al., 2016).

The Tibetan Plateau (TP), located in southwest China, contains approximately one third of the wetland area in China (Niu et al., 2012) and contributes 30%–40% of the Chinese wetland soil organic matter (Zheng et al., 2013). As the 'third pole' of the earth (average elevation 4000 m a.s.l.) and one of the most fragile regions in the world, The TP is a "sensor" for global climate change (Schwalb et al., 2008). The climate changes in the TP are more significant than those in the rest of the northern hemisphere (Feng et al., 1998; Liu and Yin, 2002). During the past 5 decades, the TP has experienced significant warming and a

slightly wetter climate (L. Li et al., 2010). The future projections based on the IPCC fifth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project5 (CMIP5) clearly indicate that the warming and wetting trend will continue on the Plateau over the 21st century (Zhang et al., 2015; Ji and Kang, 2013). The warmer and wetter climate will increase NPP (Zhuang et al., 2010) and supply more substrates for methanogens (Chen et al., 2013a). Meanwhile, permafrost thawing and glacier retreat might create larger or new freshwater marshes or lakes on the Plateau (Zhang et al., 2011). Chen et al. (2013b) reported that the TP contributes 63.5% of the CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands in China. The future climate will make the plateau a stronger CH₄ source, which should receive more attention from researchers and the government.

CH₄ observation experiments have been conducted and have shown high spatial and temporal variation in CH₄ fluxes from the wetlands on the TP (Chen et al., 2008; Hirota et al., 2004; Jin et al., 1999; Song et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2015). There have also been some studies estimating the CH₄ budget from natural wetlands on the TP using a book-keeping approach (Chen et al., 2013b; Ding et al., 2004; Jin et al., 1999) or process-based models (Jin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016b; Wei and Wang, 2017). Compared with the book-keeping method, process-based models consider the impact of environmental conditions on CH₄ emissions and can reduce the uncertainties of regional estimations. We previously developed a biogeophysical model, CH₄MOD_{wetland}, to simulate the processes of CH₄ production, oxidation and emission from natural wetlands (T. Li et al., 2010). The model is capable of capturing seasonal CH₄ variations and total annual CH₄ emissions from wetland sites in the Zoige and Haibei wetlands (Li et al., 2017) and has been applied for quantifying CH₄ emissions from wetlands on the TP for the past 60 years (Li et al., 2016b). The objective of this study is to use this model to project the temporal and spatial CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands on the TP during the 21st century under IPCC AR5 scenarios.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Model framework

In a previous study, we utilized a model framework to estimate CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands on the TP from 1950 to 2010 (Li et al., 2016b). In this study, the same model framework (Fig. 1) was used to project the CH₄ emissions from 2006 to 2100 under the 3 Representative Concentration Pathway scenarios (RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5

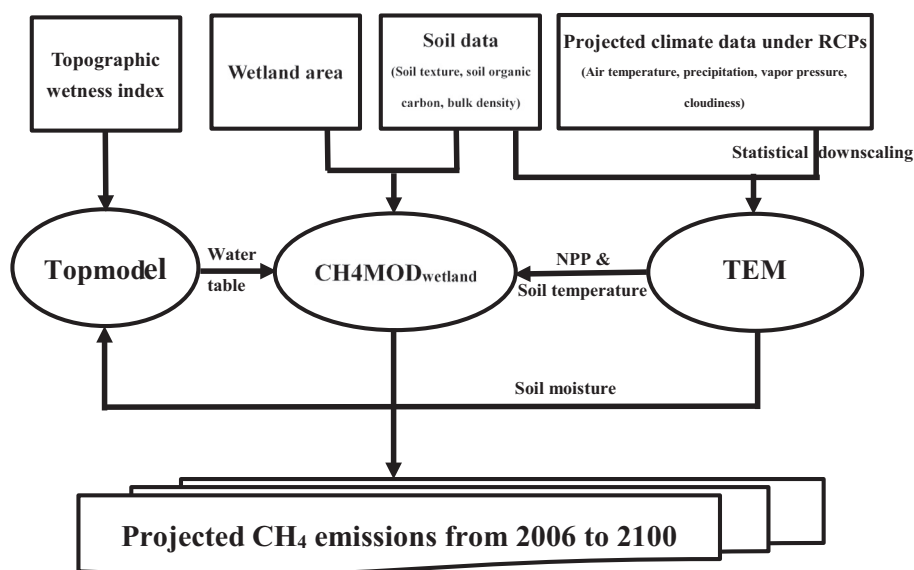


Fig. 1. Framework for projecting CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands on the TP between 2006 and 2100. CH₄MOD_{wetland} is a biogeophysical model to simulate CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands. TEM is a process-based biogeochemistry model that couples carbon, nitrogen, water, and heat processes in terrestrial ecosystems to simulate ecosystem carbon and nitrogen dynamics. TOPMODEL is a conceptual rainfall-runoff model that is designed to work at the scale of large watersheds using the statistics of topography.

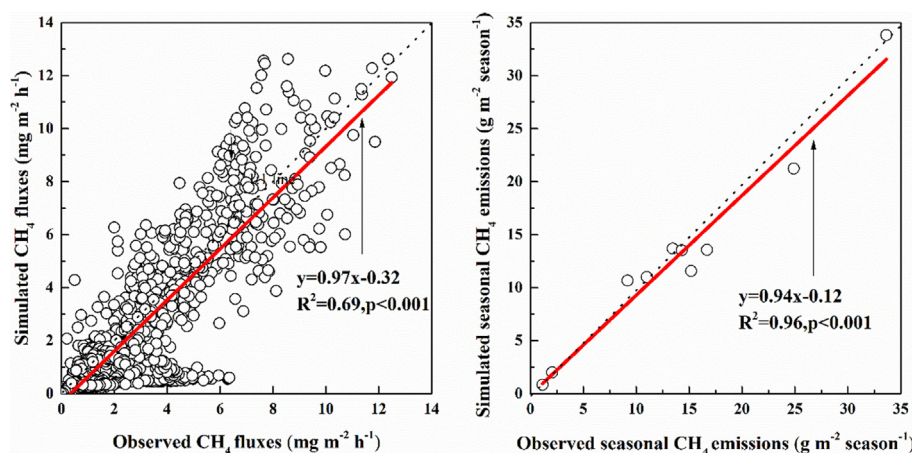


Fig. 2. Comparison of simulated with observed daily (a) and total seasonal (b) CH_4 fluxes from all of the sites on TP. Model correspondence (red solid line) is the regression line of simulated vs. observed CH_4 fluxes. The dashed line is a 1:1 line. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

scenarios). The model framework is based on 3 models: $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ (T. Li et al., 2010), TEM (Zhuang et al., 2004) and Topmodel (Beven and Kirkby, 1979) (Fig. 1).

$\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ is the center of the model framework. This model is a biogeophysical, process-based model for simulating CH_4 fluxes and emissions from natural wetlands, including marshes, floodplains, peatland, and coastal wetlands. $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ was established based on CH4MOD , which is used to model CH_4 emissions from rice paddies (Huang et al., 1998a,b, 2004). According to the difference between the supply of methanogenic substrates from natural wetlands and rice paddies, $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ differs from CH4MOD by considering methanogenic substrates to be derived from root exudates, the decomposition of plant litter and soil organic matter (T. Li et al., 2010). CH_4 production is calculated by the availability of substrates and by soil environment influences, such as soil temperature, soil texture, redox potential and soil salinity. There are 3 means of CH_4 transportation, i.e., plant aerenchyma, ebullition and diffusion. When CH_4 is emitted via plant aerenchyma and diffusion, part of the CH_4 is oxidized. The inputs of the model include daily soil temperature, water table depth, the annual above-ground net primary productivity (ANPP), soil texture, soil organic matter, bulk density and wetland area. The outputs are the daily and annual CH_4 fluxes and emissions. More details about $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ have been well documented in previous studies (T. Li et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012, 2015, 2016b).

We integrated $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$, TEM and Topmodel into a model framework (Fig. 1). TEM and Topmodel were used to supply the daily soil temperature, ANPP and daily water table depth to $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ (Fig. 1). TEM is a process-based ecosystem model that simulates the biogeochemical cycles of C and N between terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere (Zhuang et al., 2004, 2010). TEM has been widely used to estimate regional and global net primary productivity (Cramer et al., 1999; Jin et al., 2015; McGuire et al., 1992; Melillo et al., 1993). The TEM model is driven by projected climate data, including air temperature, precipitation, vapor pressure and cloudiness, and can simulate and output the soil temperature, soil moisture and ANPP, which can be the inputs of $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ and Topmodel (Fig. 1). Topmodel is a popular method to simulate regional water table depth in natural wetlands (Bohn et al., 2007; Kleinen et al., 2012; Lu and Zhuang, 2012; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2013). More details about the model framework have been described clearly in Li et al. (2016b).

2.2. Model calibration and validation

The main parameters that should be calibrated in $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ are vegetation index (VI), the fraction of CH_4 oxidized during plant mediated transport (P_{ox}) and the fraction of plant mediated transport

available (T_{veg}). We calibrated these three parameters in previous studies (T. Li et al., 2010; Li et al., 2017) and keep the values in this study.

$\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ has been validated in wetlands on the TP (Li et al., 2016b, 2017). In order to test the model performance prior to extrapolation to the TP, we validated the model against more observations of seasonal CH_4 variations at site scale. Table S1 describes the site information. Table S2 shows the parameters used in the simulation. We compared the seasonal variations of the observed and simulated CH_4 fluxes (Fig. S1). We also calculated some statistics to quantify the model performance. The statistics include the root mean square error (RMSE), the 95% RMSE, the mean deviation (RMD) and the model efficiency (EF). The details description and the equations to calculate these elements are described in Supplementary material S1.

The validation results show that although there were some discrepancies between the simulated and observed CH_4 fluxes, $\text{CH4MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ can generally capture the seasonal variations at each site (Fig. S1, $\text{EF} > 0$ in Table 2). For example, at Haibei_2 site (Table S1), the model can't capture the peak CH_4 emissions during the soil thawing season (April to May) (Fig. S1e). The RMSE values indicate that although some simulated points lay outside the standard errors of the individual measured values, they fell within the 95% confidence interval for the whole dataset ($\text{RMSE} < \text{RMSE}_{95\%}$ in Table 2).

The model displayed a good performance in predicting the total seasonal CH_4 emissions ($\text{EF} = 0.96$ in Table 2). The regression of the computed versus observed total seasonal CH_4 emissions (Fig. 2b) resulted in an R^2 of 0.96, with a slope of 0.94 and an intercept of -0.12 g m^{-2} ($n = 10$, $p < 0.001$), which indicate that the differences of CH_4 emissions between sites and in different years can, in general, be simulated. A slight negative systematic bias existed between the simulated and observed seasonal CH_4 emissions ($\text{RMD} = -6.8\%$).

2.3. Model extrapolation and data sources

Gridded ($10 \text{ km} \times 10 \text{ km}$) and geo-referenced time-series input datasets of projected climate data, soil data, the topographic wetness

Table 1

Statistics of model performance on daily and seasonal CH_4 emissions from different sites.

Site	RMSE (RMSE _{95%}) %	RMD %	EF	n
Zoige	53.8 (130.1)	−2.5	0.29	70
Namucuo	66.5 (318.2)	−14.6	0.84	27
Haibei_1	30.6 (61.0)	−5.4	0.05	12
Haibei_2	47.1 (133.8)	−13.9	0.53	841
Fenghuoshan	43.2 (276.5)	2.1	0.91	12
All (daily)	47.9 (140.4)	−12.8	0.56	962
All (season)	13.9 (126.6)	−6.8	0.96	10

Table 2
Information on the climate models.

Model name	Model center	Resolution	Reference
FGOALS-g2	LASG, Institute of Atmospheric Physic, Chinese Academy of Sciences, China	$1.28^{\circ} \times 1.08^{\circ}$	Li et al. (2013)
HadGEM2-AO	Met Office Hadley Centre, United Kingdom	$1.92^{\circ} \times 1.45^{\circ}$	Collins et al. (2008)
MIROC-ESM-LR	JAMSTEC, AORI, and NIES, Japan	$1.28^{\circ} \times 0.64^{\circ}$	Watanabe et al. (2011)
MPI-ESM	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany	$1.92^{\circ} \times 0.96^{\circ}$	Giorgetta et al. (2013)

index and wetland area (Table S3) were established to drive the model framework and make spatiotemporal estimates of CH_4 fluxes from the wetlands on the TP (Fig. 1).

The projected climate data from 2006–2100 under 3 RCPs (RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) with four global climate models (GCMs) were used to drive the TEM model. RCP 2.6 is a pathway where radiative forcing peaks at approximately 3 W m^{-2} before 2100 and then declines to 2.6 W m^{-2} in 2100. The peak approximate CO_2 equivalent concentration reaches 490 ppm before 2100 under RCP 4.5, which comprises intermediate “stabilization pathways” in which radiative forcing is stabilized at approximately 4.5 W m^{-2} after 2100. RCP 8.5 is a “high pathway” in which radiative forcing reaches $>8.5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ by 2100 and continues to rise for some amount of time. RCP 8.5 has an approximate CO_2 equivalent concentration of 1370 ppm in 2100. The four GCM models are FGOALS-g2, HadGEM2-AO, MIROC-ESM-LR and MPI-ESM. Table 1 shows the overview information of the four GCM models. The projected climate datasets were available from the Earth System Federation. However, the outputs of the GCMs have a coarser spatial resolution (Table 2); therefore, the projections were statistically downscaled to a resolution of $10 \text{ km} \times 10 \text{ km}$ (Bertacchi Uvo et al., 2001; Lanza et al., 2001).

The soil texture data were used to assign texture-specific parameters to each grid cell in the TEM model, and the input parameters of $\text{CH}_4\text{MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$ were derived from the soil map of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO/IIASA/ISRIC/ISS-CAS/JRC, 2012). The soil organic carbon content and the reference bulk density in wetland soils, which were the inputs of $\text{CH}_4\text{MOD}_{\text{wetland}}$, were from

the Harmonized World Soil Database (HWSD) (FAO/IIASA/ISRIC/ISS-CAS/JRC, 2008). The resolution of the soil datasets was $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ and was interpolated to $10 \text{ km} \times 10 \text{ km}$ using the nearest neighbor approach. High-resolution global topographic index datasets were used to drive the TOPMODEL (Marthews et al., 2015).

Wetlands were defined in this study as land area that is permanently or seasonally saturated, excluding small ponds, lakes and rivers. During the past 60 years, wetland lost significantly on TP due to global warming as well as draining and reclamation of the land as farmland (Niu et al., 2012). The estimated wetland area in 2008 from TP was only $33,400 \text{ km}^2$ in 2008 (Niu et al., 2012). After joining the Ramsar Convention in 1992, the Chinese government has increasingly recognized the importance of wetland protection (Wang et al., 2012). In this study, we assumed that without human influences, the wetlands on TP would develop to its potential status in future. The potential distribution of wetlands is defined as the spatial distribution of wetlands that would exist if there were no human activities on earth (Hu et al., 2017). Hu et al. (2015, 2017) simulated the potential distribution of global wetlands by employing a new Precipitation Topographic Wetness Index (PTWI) and global remote sensing training samples. We extracted the potential wetland distribution on TP from this dataset (Fig. 3). The potential wetland area excluding small ponds, lakes and rivers is $88,500 \text{ km}^2$ on the TP, much higher than the present wetland area on TP.

A total of 12 simulations (3 scenarios \times 4 GCM datasets) were processed in this study. The model framework was run in each grid for the grid level of CH_4 fluxes and emissions. The area-weighted average CH_4 fluxes on the whole TP wetland area were based on the potential natural

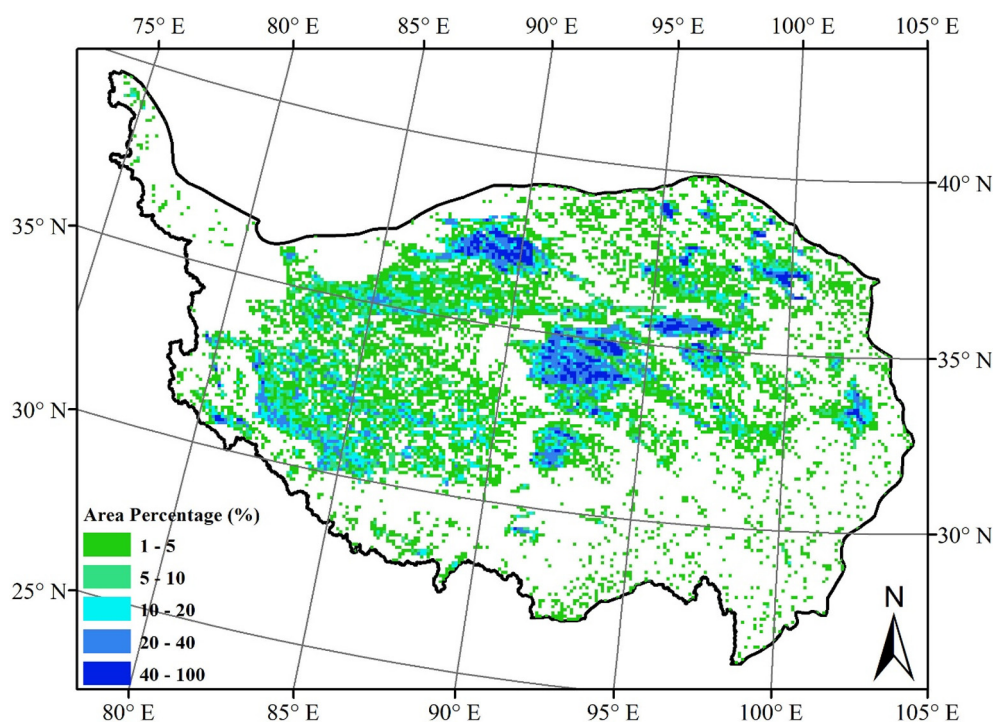


Fig. 3. Potential natural wetland distribution on the TP. The area percentage represents the percentage of the total area of the grid (100 km^2) that is wetland area. Data are extracted from the global potential wetland distribution by Hu et al. (2017).

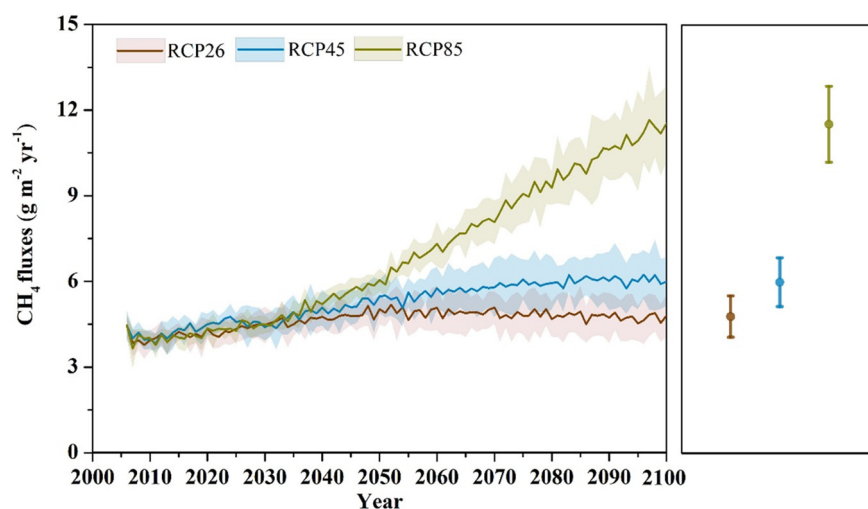


Fig. 4. Projected CH₄ fluxes in RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5. Colored solid lines represent ensemble average simulations by GCM climate models, and the shaded areas around each line represent one standard deviation. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

wetland distribution. The total CH₄ emissions from the potential natural wetlands on the TP were the sum of the CH₄ emissions from each grid.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Projected temporal trends in CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands on the TP

Mean area-weighted CH₄ fluxes from the potential natural wetlands on the TP were projected to increase from $4.45 \pm 0.42 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2006 to 4.79 ± 0.72 , 5.99 ± 0.85 and $11.53 \pm 1.33 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively, by 2100 (Fig. 4). The regional annual CH₄ fluxes showed a significant increase from 2006 to 2100, with a rate of 0.09 g m^{-2} per decade ($R^2 = 0.49$, $p < 0.001$), 0.24 g m^{-2} per decade ($R^2 = 0.93$, $p < 0.001$), and 0.88 g m^{-2} per decade ($R^2 = 0.96$, $p < 0.001$) in RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively.

In RCP 2.6, the mean area-weighted annual CH₄ fluxes reached a maximum value of $4.95 \pm 0.62 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and then declined (Table 3). In contrast, annual mean CH₄ fluxes were projected to increase to the peak of $6.04 \pm 0.78 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the 2080s and remain constant thereafter in RCP 4.5 (Table 3). In RCP 8.5, the mean area-weighted annual CH₄ fluxes were projected to increase throughout the century. The projected mean annual CH₄ flux was 2.75 times larger in the 2090s than in the beginning of the century (Table 3).

The estimated wetland area from remote sensing data was $33,400 \text{ km}^2$ in 2008 (Niu et al., 2012). The potential wetland area is projected to be $88,500 \text{ km}^2$ (Hu et al., 2015, 2017). If the area of the natural wetlands on the TP reaches the potential wetland distribution by 2050, the entire TP wetlands will emit 0.43 ± 0.05 , 0.47 ± 0.06

and $0.52 \pm 0.03 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2050 under RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5, respectively (Table 4). However, if natural wetlands reach the potential wetland distribution by the end of this century, a total of 0.42 ± 0.06 , 0.54 ± 0.09 and $1.01 \pm 0.12 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ of CH₄ emissions will be emitted in 2100 from the natural wetlands of the TP (Table 4). If we assume that the wetland area will expand linearly from 2008 to 2100, the cumulative CH₄ emissions from the natural wetlands will be 38.27 ± 4.75 , 43.50 ± 5.59 and $57.54 \pm 5.12 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ under RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 from 2008 to 2100, respectively.

3.2. Projected spatial variation in CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands on the TP

Fig. 5a shows the spatial distribution of mean CH₄ fluxes under RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 from 2006 to 2010. From south to north and east to west, CH₄ fluxes decreased. Higher CH₄ fluxes occurred in the northeastern, eastern and southeastern edges of the TP, where the altitude was almost under 4000 m (Wei et al., 2015). The eastern edge of the Plateau, where the Zoige wetland is located, showed peak fluxes as high as $40 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5a). The spatial patterns were similar at the end of 21st century under different CMIP5 RCP scenarios. Over the century CH₄ fluxes were projected to increase in most of the wetlands on the TP, with different increments between different wetlands and RCPs scenarios (Fig. 5b, c and d). The projected increases in CH₄ fluxes showed similar spatial patterns under RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 and were higher in the southeast and lower in the northwest (Fig. 5b, c and d). In RCP 2.6, CH₄ fluxes were projected to increase by $0\text{--}5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from most of the wetlands, except for wetlands of the southeastern edge of the TP, which demonstrated an increment of approximately $5\text{--}10 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5b). In RCP 4.5, the increment of CH₄ fluxes reached $10\text{--}20 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the southeastern region of

Table 3
Decadal variations in CH₄ fluxes under CMIP5 scenarios.

Decades	CH ₄ fluxes ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)		
	RCP 2.6	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5
2006–2010	3.98 ± 0.39	4.12 ± 0.38	4.05 ± 0.35
2010–2020	4.07 ± 0.38	4.19 ± 0.40	4.02 ± 0.32
2021–2030	4.32 ± 0.46	4.57 ± 0.45	4.41 ± 0.34
2031–2040	4.61 ± 0.47	4.77 ± 0.58	4.90 ± 0.36
2041–2050	4.81 ± 0.51	5.17 ± 0.63	5.69 ± 0.38
2051–2060	4.95 ± 0.62	5.47 ± 0.66	6.72 ± 0.46
2061–2070	4.91 ± 0.66	5.70 ± 0.79	7.75 ± 0.62
2071–2080	4.83 ± 0.69	5.91 ± 0.95	9.01 ± 0.86
2081–2090	4.79 ± 0.75	6.04 ± 0.78	10.11 ± 1.08
2091–2100	4.72 ± 0.71	6.04 ± 0.97	11.12 ± 1.30

Table 4
List of CH4MOD_{wetland} simulated wetland CH₄ emissions for future RCPs by CMIP5 models.

Model	CH ₄ emissions by 2050 ($\text{Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$)			CH ₄ emissions by 2100 ($\text{Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$)		
	RCP 2.6	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5	RCP 2.6	RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5
FGOALS-g2	0.38	0.40	0.49	0.37	0.44	0.93
HadGEM2-AO	0.47	0.52	0.54	0.45	0.61	1.02
MIROC-ESM-LR	0.48	0.51	0.55	0.49	0.61	1.16
MPI-ESM	0.41	0.45	0.49	0.37	0.49	0.92
MEAN \pm Sd	0.43 ± 0.05	0.47 ± 0.06	0.52 ± 0.03	0.42 ± 0.06	0.54 ± 0.09	1.01 ± 0.12

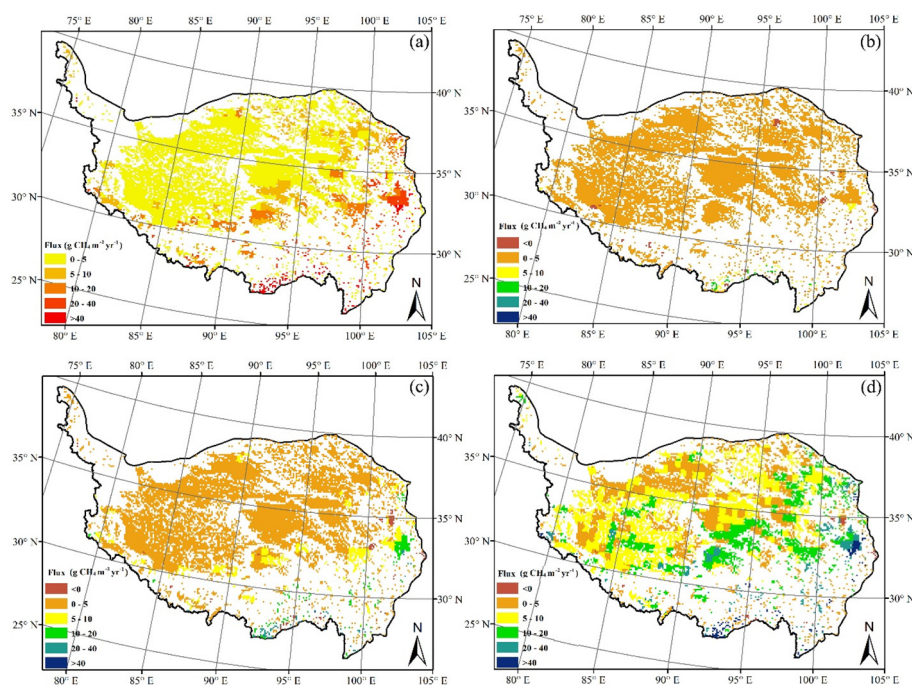


Fig. 5. Spatial variations of CH_4 fluxes. (a) Mean CH_4 fluxes under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010; (b) mean CH_4 fluxes under RCP 2.6 in the 2090s minus mean CH_4 fluxes under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010; (c) mean CH_4 fluxes under RCP 4.5 in the 2090s minus mean CH_4 fluxes under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010; (d) mean CH_4 fluxes under RCP 8.5 in the 2090s minus mean CH_4 fluxes under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010.

the TP (Fig. 5c). The projected CH_4 fluxes roughly doubled in most of the wetlands by the 2090s in RCP 8.5 (Fig. 5d).

The spatial patterns of the grid-level regional CH_4 emissions were similar to those of the CH_4 fluxes (Figs. 5a and 6a). The intense CH_4 source regions are located at the eastern edge and in the central TP, with CH_4 emissions higher than $800 \text{ t CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from 2006 to 2100 in the CMIP5 RCP scenarios (Fig. 6a). The highest CH_4 increment also occurred in

these two regions, with values of 50–100 t under RCP 2.6 (Fig. 6b), 100–200 t under RCP 4.5 (Fig. 6c) and $>200 \text{ t}$ under RCP 8.5 (Fig. 6d).

Based on previous observations, CH_4 fluxes show strong spatial heterogeneity across the natural wetlands on the TP. These differences may be due to soil temperature, soil moisture, soil organic carbon, altitude and plant biomass (Wei et al., 2015). Our simulations were similar to previous observations. For example, previous studies have shown

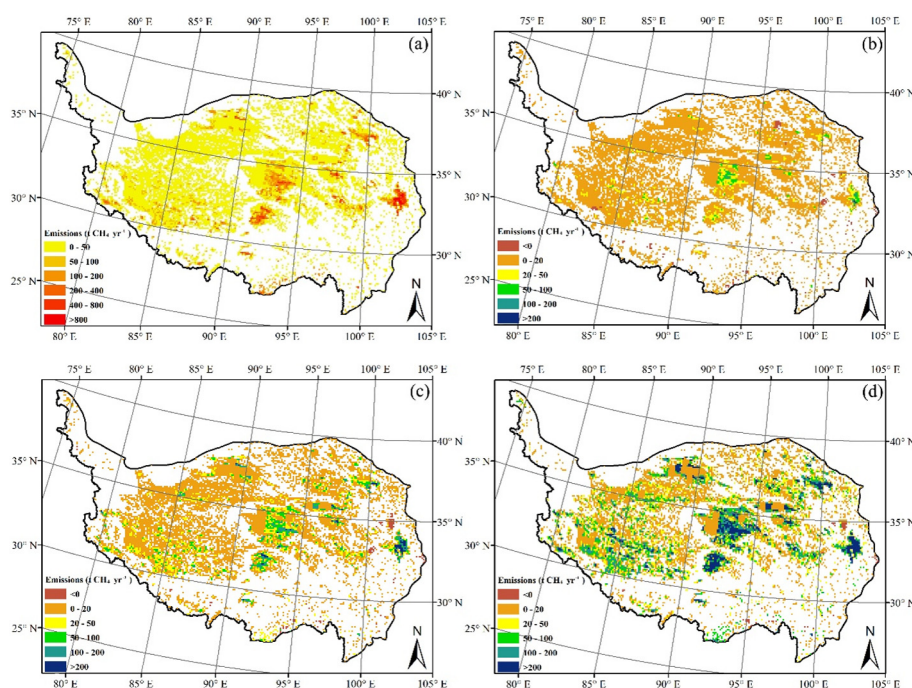


Fig. 6. Spatial variations of regional CH_4 emissions. (a) Mean CH_4 emissions under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010; (b) mean CH_4 emissions under RCP 2.6 in the 2090s minus mean CH_4 emissions under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010; (c) mean CH_4 emissions under RCP 4.5 in the 2090s minus mean CH_4 emissions under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010; (d) mean CH_4 emissions under RCP 8.5 in the 2090s minus mean CH_4 emissions under the CMIP5 RCPs from 2006 to 2010.

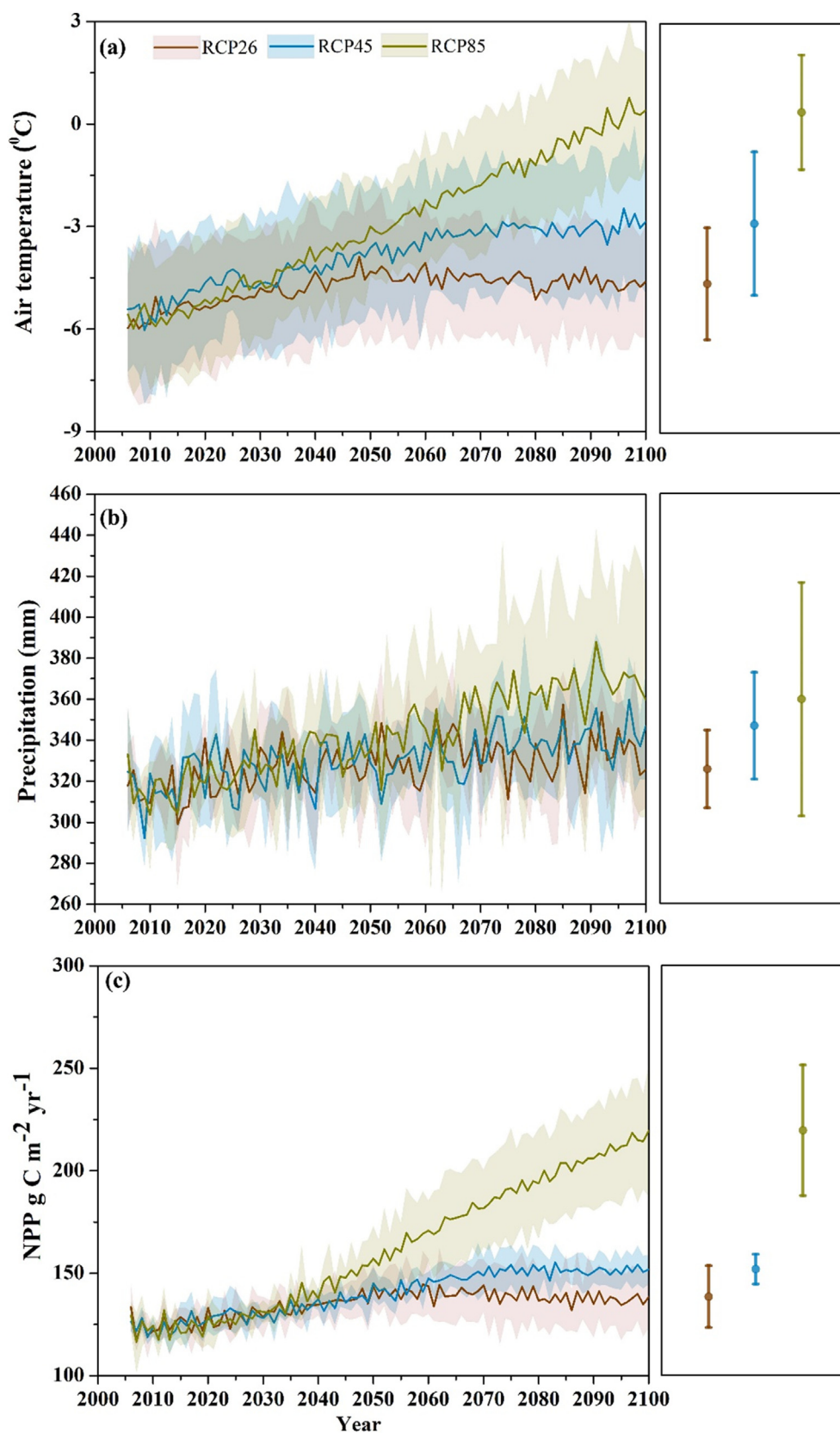


Fig. 7. Projected temporal trends of air temperature (a) and precipitation (b) by climate models and NPP (c) by TEM. The colored solid lines represent ensemble average simulations outputted by the GCM climate models or from using GCM climate models, and the shaded areas around the lines represent one standard deviation. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

higher CH₄ fluxes in the Zoige wetlands than in other places on the TP, with values of 11–56 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Chen et al., 2008; Ding et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2002). The simulated CH₄ fluxes were approximately 20–40 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ in Zoige regions and were higher than those in other regions on the TP (Fig. 5a). At Huashixia, Nam Co and Haibei, the observed CH₄ fluxes were 5.3–6.7 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Jin et al., 1999), 0.6 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Wei et al., 2015) and 11.1–33.8 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Hirota et al., 2004; Song et al., 2015), respectively. The simulated CH₄ fluxes were also comparable to the observed fluxes, with values of 5–10, 0–5 and 10–20 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Fig. 5a).

Previous modeling studies on the TP have shown similar distributions of CH₄ fluxes. Most of the simulations, e.g., Wei and Wang (2017), Jin et al. (2015) and Xu and Tian (2012), show the highest CH₄ emissions from the eastern region of the TP. Liu et al. (2015) also modeled a decrease in CH₄ emissions from the southeast to northwest. Jin's simulations (Jin et al., 2015) show higher CH₄ fluxes in the eastern, northeastern and central regions of the TP, which is similar to our simulations (Fig. 5a).

3.3. Impact of environmental drivers on CH₄ emissions

The temporal variation in CH₄ fluxes was strongly influenced by the air temperature, precipitation and NPP (Fig. 8). The area-weighted annual mean air temperature, annual precipitation and annual NPP showed a significant increase from 2006 to 2100 ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 7), which promotes CH₄ emissions (Fig. 4). Under RCP 2.6, the maximum air temperature and NPP were found during the 2050s, and the maximum annual precipitation was found in the 2060s, and then declined thereafter (Fig. 7). This corresponded to the temporal CH₄ variations (Table 3, Fig. 4). An increase of almost 50% (Fig. 4, Table 3) in CH₄ fluxes was promoted by the increases in air temperature, precipitation and NPP under RCP 4.5 (Fig. 7).

Under RCP 8.5, an increase of 5.8 °C in air temperature, an 18% increase in precipitation and a 72% increase in NPP resulted in an increase of 175% in CH₄ fluxes (Table 3). Significant positive correlations were found between the annual mean CH₄ flux and temperature (Fig. 8a, b and c), the CH₄ flux and annual precipitation (Fig. 8d, e and f), and the CH₄ flux and annual NPP (Fig. 8g, h and i). This result suggested that warmer, wetter climates and CO₂ fertilization will accelerate CH₄ emissions from the wetlands on the TP during the 21st century.

Global climate change is likely to stimulate CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands (Dean et al., 2018; Erwin, 2009; Yvon-Durocher et al., 2014). Temperature can stimulate methanogenic activity and CH₄ oxidation (Frenzel and Karofeld, 2000; Kip et al., 2010; van Winden et al., 2012), but CH₄ oxidation rates are less temperature dependent than CH₄ production (Schipper et al., 2014). A rise in precipitation can enhance the water table depth, extend the wetland area and increase the rate of organic substrate leaching to deeper parts of the peat profile, which can induce higher CH₄ production. The historic CH₄ fluxes from wetlands across the TP were significantly and positively correlated with air temperature and precipitation (Li et al., 2016b; Zhu et al., 2016). The simulated results of this study show that these relationships will continue in the 21st century (Fig. 6a and b). Temperature and precipitation were also found to be the most important controlling factors for CH₄ emissions in northeastern China over the past 3 decades (Wei and Wang, 2016; Zhu et al., 2016) as well as in the 21st century (Li et al., 2016c). In addition, several modeling studies have documented the positive effects of warmer temperatures and CO₂ fertilization on NPP (Jin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016c; Melillo et al., 1993; Wieder et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2018), which can supply more methanogenic substrates and promote CH₄ production (King and Reeburgh, 2002; Whiting and Chanton, 1993). These results are also consistent with our analysis (Figs. 7c, 8g, h and i).

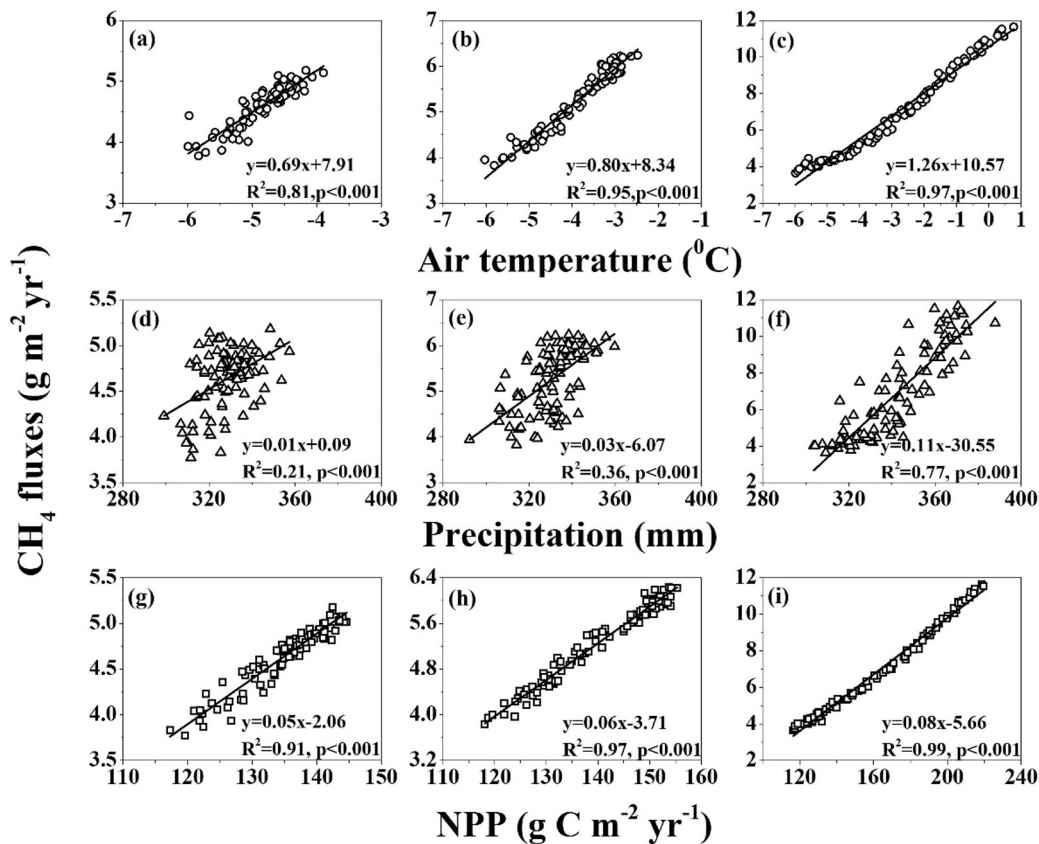


Fig. 8. Regression between annual mean CH₄ fluxes and air temperature in RCP 2.6 (a), RCP 4.5 (b), RCP 8.5 (c); regression between annual mean CH₄ fluxes and annual precipitation in RCP 2.6 (d), RCP 4.5 (e), RCP 8.5 (f); regression between annual mean CH₄ fluxes and annual NPP in RCP 2.6 (g), RCP 4.5 (h), RCP 8.5 (i).

3.4. Uncertainties and future needs

This study projected CH₄ emissions from natural wetlands under the RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios during the 21st century. Comparing with previous modeling studies, there are large uncertainties in predicting CH₄ fluxes under different climate conditions in different regions. Jin et al. (2015) predicted CH₄ increases of 1.2, 2.3 and 5.3 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ under the RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios in natural wetlands on the TP by 2100. Our results are lower than Jin's results under RCP 2.6 (0.9 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) and RCP 4.5 (1.9 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) and are higher than Jin's result under RCP 8.5 (7.1 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) (Fig. 4 and Table 3). Under the RCP 2.6 scenario, most previous modeling studies, e.g., Jin's prediction for the TP (Jin et al., 2015), Zhang's prediction for global natural wetlands (Zhang et al., 2017) and our previous study for the Sanjiang Plain (Li et al., 2016c), predicted a peak CH₄ flux in 2050 followed by a decreasing trend in CH₄ emissions. Liu et al. (2015) predicted that the peak CH₄ flux from Chinese natural wetlands would appear in 2075 under RCP 2.6. The predicted increases in CH₄ fluxes range from 30% to 78% under the RCP 4.5 scenario (Jin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016c; Liu et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017) or the doubled CO₂ scenario (Shindell et al., 2004). For the RCP 8.5 scenario, our results show a greater increase in CH₄ emissions than Jin's results for wetlands on the TP (Jin et al., 2015), Liu's results for Chinese wetlands (Liu et al., 2015) and Zhang's results for global wetlands (Zhang et al., 2017). However, our results are consistent with Zhuang's results (Zhuang et al., 2006), which predict that CH₄ emissions from wetlands in northern high latitudes will more than double over the century in a scenario with a projected atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction of approximately 1152 ppm by 2100.

In this study, the uncertain in projecting CH₄ emissions is due to several factors. Insufficient model processes represent the first factor that may induce uncertainty in future projections. The present model lacks some physical and biogeochemical processes that induce uncertainties in model simulations. For example, warming-induced permafrost thawing would result in substantial emissions of old CH₄ on the TP (Chen et al., 2013a). However, this process is not described in the present model. Another example is the effect of nitrogen deposition, which can regulate plant growth, methanogenesis and methanotrophy (Gomez-Casanovas et al., 2016; Liu and Greaver, 2009) and should also be considered in the present model. Poindexter et al. (2016) reported that most of the previous models overlooked the hydrodynamic transport. How emissions are partitioned among the transportation ways in large-scale regional and global models of wetland CH₄ emissions should be reassessed in future (Anthony and MacIntyre, 2016). If possible, more detailed physical and biogeophysical processes with sufficient data support are necessary in future model development.

The second factor that results in uncertainties in CH₄ projections are vegetation impacts. Future climate change can change both NPP and the distribution of vegetation across the TP (Gao et al., 2016; Song et al., 2018). The simulation results by Gao et al. (2016) show that the area of forests and shrubs will increase and the area of alpine meadows will decrease under future climate conditions. Vegetation contributes significantly to methanogenic substrates (Minoda et al., 1996; Whiting and Chanton, 1992) and methanogenic community composition (Cui et al., 2015). Different plant species have different substrate qualities, above- and belowground production dynamics, rhizosphere effects, and plant-mediated transport (Berrittella and Huissteden, 2011; Bhullar et al., 2013; Dorodnikov et al., 2011; Li et al., 2016a; Ström et al., 2005). In this study, we assumed that the vegetation distribution will not change in the future, which may induce a large uncertainty in the CH₄ simulation. In the future, changes in the vegetation distribution should be considered in the simulation. In addition, more calibration and validation according to different vegetation communities should be made to improve predictions of CH₄ emissions (Bridgman et al., 2013).

Last but not least, poor projections of the wetland extent inevitably induce large uncertainties in simulations of future regional CH₄

emissions. The estimated wetland area of natural wetlands on the TP during the 1990s and 2000s ranged from 32,000 km² to 188,000 km², which induced estimated regional CH₄ emissions of 0.06 to 1.25 Tg from the present wetlands on the TP (Chen et al., 2013a; Ding et al., 2004; Jin et al., 1999; Jin et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016b; Wei et al., 2015; Xu and Tian, 2012; Zhang and Jiang, 2014). Jin et al. (2015) used the wetland distribution from Papa et al. (2010) of 134,000 km² and projected CH₄ emissions of 1.13, 1.42 and 1.68 Tg yr⁻¹ in the 2090s under the RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios, respectively. We used an area of 88,500 and projected totals of 0.42, 0.54 and 1.01 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ in 2050 under the same scenarios in 2100 (Table 3). Different wetland distributions resulting from different methods (Zhang et al., 2016) induce large uncertainties in estimated regional CH₄ emissions. Future wetland projections should depend on both climate change and human activities (Erwin, 2009). Alpine wetland ecosystems are severely impacted by climate change due to their fragmentation (Xue et al., 2014). Precipitation will be the main driver of the growth of freshwater marshes in the TP in the future (Xue et al., 2014). Warmer temperatures will cause the Plateau to be drier in the future. However, these warmer temperatures may also cause frozen areas to thaw and glaciers to melt (Zhao et al., 2004). Wetland restoration was planned by the China National Wetland Conservation Action Plan (NWCP) (Editorial Committee, 2009). However, climate change will make wetland restoration more complex (Erwin, 2009). Considering the difficulties and uncertainties in predicting the wetland extent in the TP, we used the potential natural wetland to represent the future wetland distribution on the TP (Hu et al., 2017). In the future, more attention should be paid to predicting wetland extent to reduce the uncertainties in estimating regional CH₄ emissions.

4. Conclusions

This study projected temporal and spatial variations of CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands across the TP from 2006 to 2100 using an integrated model framework based on CH4MOD_{wetland}, TEM and Topmodel. The model simulation shows that the average CH₄ fluxes will increase by 7.6%, 27.0% and 124.5% under the RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios, respectively, by 2100. The dominant drivers of the increases in CH₄ fluxes are air temperature, precipitation and NPP. The total CH₄ emissions will reach 0.42 ± 0.06, 0.54 ± 0.09 and 1.01 ± 0.12 Tg yr⁻¹ under the RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios, respectively, if the natural wetland reaches a potential wetland area of 88,500 km² by the end of this century. At a regional scale, higher CH₄ fluxes will occur in the northeastern, eastern and southeastern edges of the TP. To reduce the uncertainties in predictions of regional CH₄ emissions from the TP, more attention should be paid to model improvement and the acquisition of more reliable information on wetland and vegetation distributions in the future.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.275>.

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